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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) Response and safety of nonlinear structures under random excitations are investigated. The excitations can be either external, or parametric, or both. Extensions are made along two directions from the earlier works on exact solutions when the excitations are Gaussian white noises: (1) the excitations are impulsive, but non-Gaussian, (2) the system does not belong to the class of generalized stationary potential, thus, exact solution is not obtainable at the present time. In the first case, the probability density of the structural response is governed by a partial differential equation, with infinite number of terms. A perturbation analysis is devised to obtain approximate solutions. In the second case, a new technique is developed to obtain approximate solutions on the principle of weighted residuals. On the issues of structural safety, two failure modes are investigated: catastrophic failure and fatigue failure. Catastrophic failure occurs when structural response exceeds, for the first time, a critical limit. Fatigue failure is investigated from a fracture mechanics point of view, namely, failure is assumed to occur when a dominant crack is propagated to a critical size.				
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## INTRODUCTION

Aerospace structures are often subjected to random excitations. One major source of random excitations is the air turbulence, which may be generated by natural geo-thermal processes, afflux of a propulsion system, flight maneuver, or explosions in a battle field. Depending on the way in which such random excitations interact with a structure, they can be classified into two types: the external (or additive) excitations and the parametric (or multiplicative) excitations. In the equations of motion, external excitations appear as inhomogeneous terms, whereas parametric excitations appear in the coefficients of the unknowns.

Aerospace structures are often operated into the nonlinear regime due to elevated temperature or large deformation. Furthermore, certain fluid-structure interaction phenomena are known to be highly nonlinear, e.g., stall flutter, vortex induced vibration, and high angle of attack during maneuver.

The objective of the research project is to develop solution techniques for nonlinear aerospace structures under either additive or multiplicative random excitations, or both. The required solutions include probability densities or statistical properties of structural response to random excitations, as well as reliability of such structures to fulfill their intended functions.

## NON-GAUSSIAN WHITE NOISE EXCITATIONS

The nonlinear structures considered are of the general form

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$$\frac{d}{dt} X_j = f_j(X, t) + g_{jk}(X, t) W_k(t); \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N; \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, M \quad (1)$$

where  $f_j$  and  $g_{jk}$  are nonlinear functions, and  $W_k(t)$  are random excitations. The possibility for exact solutions exists only when  $W_k(t)$  are Gaussian white noises. In this case  $X(t)$  is a Markov vector, whose probability density  $p(x)$  at the state of statistical stationarity is governed by the following reduced Fokker-Planck equation [e.g. 1]

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} G_j = 0 \quad (2)$$

where

$$G_j = A_j(x)p(x) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} [B_{jk}(x)p(x)] \quad (3)$$

$$A_j(x) = f_j(x) + \pi K_{ts} g_{js} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_r} g_{rt}(x) \quad (4)$$

$$B_{jk}(x) = 2\pi K_{ts} g_{jt} g_{ks} \quad (5)$$

and where  $K_{ts}$  is the cross-spectral density of  $W_t(t)$  and  $W_s(t)$ . In Eqs. (2) - (5), a lower case symbol represents a possible value of the corresponding upper case random quantity. The second order partial differential equation, Eq. (2), is solved with the condition  $G_j = 0$  at all the boundaries. We have obtained previously solutions for a class of nonlinear systems, called the class of generalized stationary potential [2-4].

The present effort is directed at relaxing some idealized assumptions. In some aeronautical applications, the excitations on a structure are sometimes irregular intermittent short pulses, which can be reasonably modeled as a white noise; however, it may be non-Gaussian.

In this case, Eq.(2) is replaced by the following partial differential equation of an infinite order.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (A_i p) - \frac{1}{2!} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (B_{ij} p) + \frac{1}{3!} \frac{\partial^3}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k} (C_{ijk} p) \\ - \frac{1}{4!} \frac{\partial^4}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} (D_{ijkl} p) + \dots = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where  $A_i$  and  $B_{ij}$  have been defined in Eqs. (3) and (4), whereas  $C_{ijk}$ ,  $D_{ijkl}$ , etc., are calculated according to

$$C_{ijk} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} E[\Delta X_i \Delta X_j \Delta X_k | X(t) = x] \quad (7)$$

$$D_{ijkl} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} E[\Delta X_i \Delta X_j \Delta X_k \Delta X_l | X(t) = x] \quad (8)$$

.....

In Eqs. (7) and (8),  $\Delta X_i = X_i(t+\Delta t) - X_i(t)$ , etc. A closed form solution for Eq. (6) is clearly impossible.

A perturbation scheme is, therefore, devised to obtain an approximate solution for non-Gaussian white noise excitations. For simplicity, consider the case of a single white noise excitation, which may be treated as a sequence of independently arriving impulses, each with a random magnitude  $Y$ . The probability density of  $Y$  need not be symmetrical. If the average arrival rate of the random impulses is  $\lambda$ , then the departure from Gaussianity can be measured by the products  $\lambda E[Y^{n+2}]$  where  $n$  are integers. A Gaussian white noise represents the limiting case  $\lambda E[Y^{n+2}] \rightarrow 0$  for any  $n > 0$ . To account for non-Gaussianity, let

$$\lambda E[Y^{n+2}] = \epsilon^n I_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (9)$$

Then an approximate solution to Eq.(6) may be taken in the form of [5]

$$\rho(x) = \rho_0(x) [1 + \epsilon Q_1(x) + \epsilon^2 Q_2(x) + \dots] \quad (10)$$

Detailed solutions for  $Q_1(x)$  and  $Q_2$  are given in [5].

Two specific nonlinear systems, under external and parametric excitations respectively, are investigated in detail. Typical results are illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. These analytical results compared favorably with the Monte Carlo simulation results. It can be seen that the effect of non-Gaussianity in the excitation is significant for the externally excited system, but negligible for the parametrically excited system, even though the two systems share the same probability distribution when the impulsive excitation is Gaussian. Moreover, increasing level of nonlinearity in the parametrically excited system tends to reduce the effect of excitation non-Gaussianity, whereas the opposite is true for the externally excited system. For practical purposes, an external impulsive noise excitation may be treated as a Gaussian white noise if the product of the average pulse arrival rate and the relaxation time of the dynamical system is about 20 or larger [5].

#### METHOD OF WEIGHTED RESIDUAL

When a system does not belong to the class of generalized stationary potential, an exact probabilistic solution is presently unobtainable. Various approximation techniques have been developed in the past, the most recent one being the dissipation energy balancing technique proposed by Cai and Lin [6]. To explain this particular technique, consider a second order

nonlinear system, governed by

$$\ddot{X} + H(X, \dot{X}) = f_i(X, \dot{X}) W_i(t) \quad (11)$$

The reduced Fokker-Planck equation associated with system (10) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} x_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} p^*(x_1, x_2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left\{ [-H(x_1, x_2) + \pi K_{ij} f_i(x_1, x_2) \frac{\partial f_j(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2}] p^*(x_1, x_2) \right\} \\ - \pi K_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} [f_i(x_1, x_2) f_j(x_1, x_2) p^*(x_1, x_2)] = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where  $p^*(x_1, x_2)$  is the stationary probability density of the response for system (11). Let us suppose that the oscillator does not belong to the class of generalized stationary potential, therefore, an exact solution  $p^*(x_1, x_2)$  for Eq.(12) is presently not obtainable. Since the class of generalized stationary potential is the broadest solvable class known to-date which includes a large class of linear and nonlinear systems, a logical approximation scheme is to replace the original system (11) by an equivalent nonlinear system within the class of generalized stationary potential, say

$$\ddot{X} + h(X, \dot{X}) = f_i(X, \dot{X}) W_i(t) \quad (13)$$

Note that the right hand sides of Eqs.(11) and (13) can be made the same. The strategy is to find an  $h(X, \dot{X})$  function within the class of generalized stationary potential which is closest to the original  $H(X, \dot{X})$  function. The criterion proposed in [6] for selecting such an  $h(X, \dot{X})$  function is that the average dissipation energy remains the same for the substituting and the substituted systems.

The dissipation energy balancing criterion has been generalized to the criteria of zero

weighted residual in [7]. It can be shown [7] that such criteria are equivalent to

$$\Delta_M = E \left\{ [h(X_1, X_2) - H(X_1, X_2)] \frac{\partial M(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_2} \right\} = 0 \quad (14)$$

where  $X_1 = X$ ,  $X_2 = \dot{X}$ , and  $M(X_1, X_2)$  is a suitable weighing function of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , and  $E[ ]$  denotes the ensemble averaging with respect to the approximate probability density  $p(x_1, x_2)$ . The residual  $\Delta_M$  depends on the choice of  $M$ . By judiciously selecting the weighing functions, the approximation can be made closer and closer to the exact probability density. The choice of  $M = X_2^2$  is equivalent to the requirement of dissipation energy balancing, which remains the most appropriate and crucial. The remaining criteria proposed in [7] are of the form  $M = X_2 X_1^k$  where  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

It is of interest to note that the well-known procedure of equivalent linearization [8] is a special case of the present procedure, in which  $h(x_1, X_2)$  is assumed to be linear, namely  $h(X_1, X_2) = \alpha X_1 + \beta X_2$ . However, the equivalent linearization procedure is unsuitable to treat parametric excitations; thus, its applicability is restricted to the case of external excitations, namely, when  $f_i$  functions in Eq.(11) are constants. Another special case is the procedure of equivalent nonlinear systems [9], proposed also for the case of external random excitations, but allowing the  $H$  function in Eq.(11) to be nonlinear. It is expected that neither of the special cases is as accurate as the method of weighted residual, because in each of these procedures the approximation is selected only from a sub-class within the much larger exactly solvable class of generalized stationary potential.

Approximate probability densities obtained from three different procedures, namely,

equivalent linearization, equivalent nonlinear system, and weighted residual, are compared in Figs. 3 and 4. It is seen that the method of weighted residuals is, indeed, consistently superior.

### COMBINED HARMONIC AND RANDOM EXCITATIONS

Consider the following equation of motion

$$\ddot{X} + 2\zeta\omega_c\dot{X} + \omega_0^2 X + h(X, \dot{X}) = f_j(X, \dot{X}) \sin(j\nu t) + \xi(t) \quad (15)$$

where  $\xi(t)$  is a broad-band random process, playing the role of external excitation. The system is also excited by sinusoidal parametric excitations  $\sin(j\nu t)$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . A sinusoidal excitation  $\sin(j\nu t)$  is important only when near tuning occurs; namely, when  $|j\nu - 2\omega_0|$  is small. Otherwise, the presence of the sinusoidal parametric excitations can be ignored, and the problem is reduced to one with the broad-band external excitation alone.

In the near tuning case, the stochastic averaging technique fails to de-couple the amplitude process from the phase process. However, an exact solution procedure is devised for a class of nonlinear systems. When exact solutions are not obtainable, approximate solutions can be obtained by applying the method of weighted residuals. The accuracy of the approximate results is substantiated by Monte Carlo simulations. A technical paper has been submitted for journal publication [10]. Typical results are shown in Fig. 5.

### CATASTROPHIC FAILURE

Catastrophic failure occurs when a response quantity of interest exceeds, for the first time, a critical magnitude. The time at which a catastrophic failure occurs is known as the first-passage time in the theory of stochastic process. For aerospace structures, the most relevant



quantity for the catastrophic failure analysis can be either the response amplitude, or total energy (the sum of potential and kinetic energies). Under certain conditions, such a critical quantity may be modeled as a Markov process. The critical state is then represented by the absorbing boundary of the process. The statistical moment  $\mu_n = E[T^n]$  of the failure time  $T$  is governed by the recursive equation

$$\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(z_0) \frac{d^2}{dz_0^2} \mu_{n+1} + m(z_0) \frac{d}{dz_0} \mu_{n+1} = - (n+1) \mu_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (16)$$

where  $z_0$  is the initial state, which is treated as the independent variable. By definition,  $\mu_0 = 1$ . The coefficients  $m(z_0)$  and  $\sigma^2(z_0)$  are called the drift and diffusion coefficients, and are determined from the equations of motion, and the spectral densities of the random excitations. Equation (16) is solved subject to the boundary conditions

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{n+1}(z_c) &= 0 \\ \mu_{n+1}(0) &= \text{finite} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where  $z_c$  is the failure state. In the special case  $n = 1$ , Eq.(17) is reduced to the well-known Pontryagin equation [11]. It is shown that, when diffusion coefficient vanishes at a boundary, known as a singular boundary, it must be either an entrance or a regular boundary in the sense of Fuller, in order that the solution is physically meaningful.

A general method of solution for Eq.(16) has been devised for the following nonlinear

system

$$\ddot{X} + \epsilon h(X, \dot{X}) + \omega_0^2 X = \epsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} g_j(X, \dot{X}) \xi_j(t) \quad (18)$$

where  $\xi_j(t)$  are broad-band noises. A technical paper documenting the detailed analysis has been accepted for publication in the Journal of Applied Mechanics [12]. Computed results for a Duffing oscillator is shown in Fig. 6.

### FATIGUE CRACK GROWTH

From a fracture mechanics point of view, fatigue failure may be treated as propagation of a dominant crack to a critical size. Our study is based on the following crack growth model,

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \mu g(A, \Delta X) Y(t) \quad (19)$$

where  $A(t)$  is the size of a dominant crack,  $g(\ )$  represents a crack propagation law, for example, the well-known Paris-Erdogan law,  $Y(t)$  accounts for the random variation of material resistance,  $\mu$  is the average number of stress maxima per unit time, and  $\Delta X$  is the random stress range defined as

$$\Delta X(t) = |X(t_1) - X(t_2)|, \quad t_1 \leq t < t_2 \quad (20)$$

and where  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are the times at which two neighboring extrema of random stress  $X(t)$  occur. A procedure is developed to calculate the probability of fatigue failure, namely, for the dominant crack to grow to a critical crack size [13]. This procedure is applicable when the fatigue crack growth is a slow process compared with the random stress process, which is the case with the

high cycle fatigue. In the special case in which the stress is a narrow-band stationary Gaussian process, analytical expressions have been obtained for the probability densities of the crack size, the fatigue life, and the liability function.

Calculations have been carried out for the case of a central crack, depicted in Fig. 7. The computed probability density is illustrated in Fig. 8, along with Monte-Carlo simulation results.

### CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this report, we have high-lighted the research accomplishments during the two years under grant G-AFOSR-91-0073. A total of ten publications have been generated, with acknowledgement to the AFOSR support. It is hoped that the information provided in these highlights will direct an interested reader to more detailed accounts in the quoted references.

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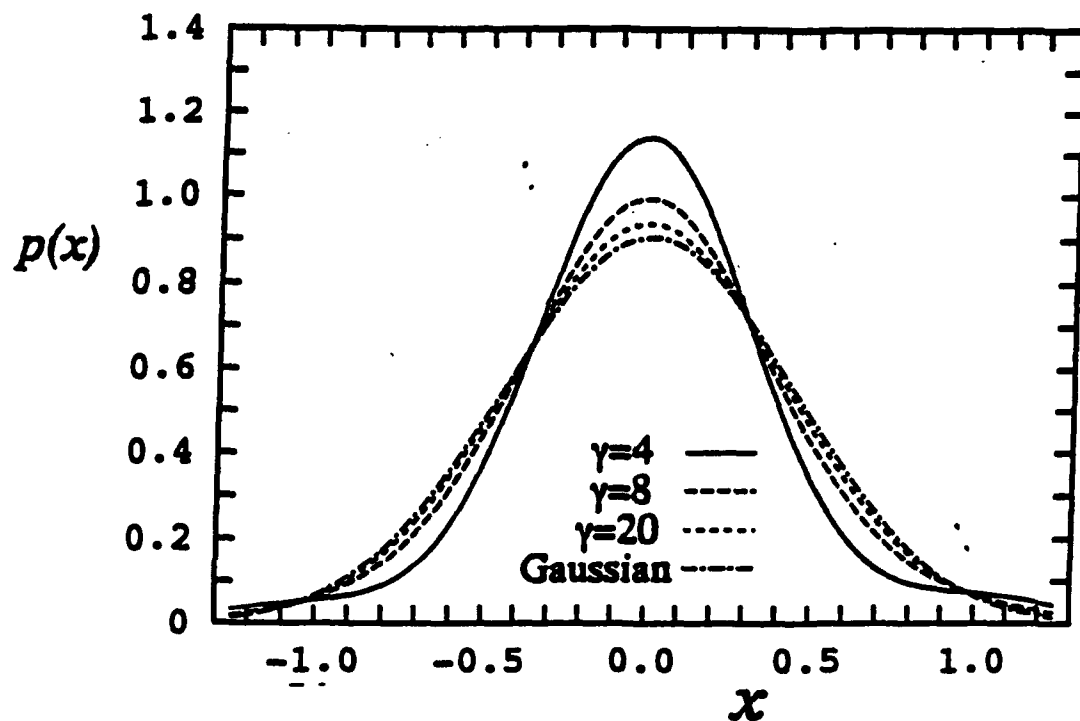
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#### APPENDIX - PUBLICATIONS GENERATED FROM GRANT G-AFOSR-91-0073

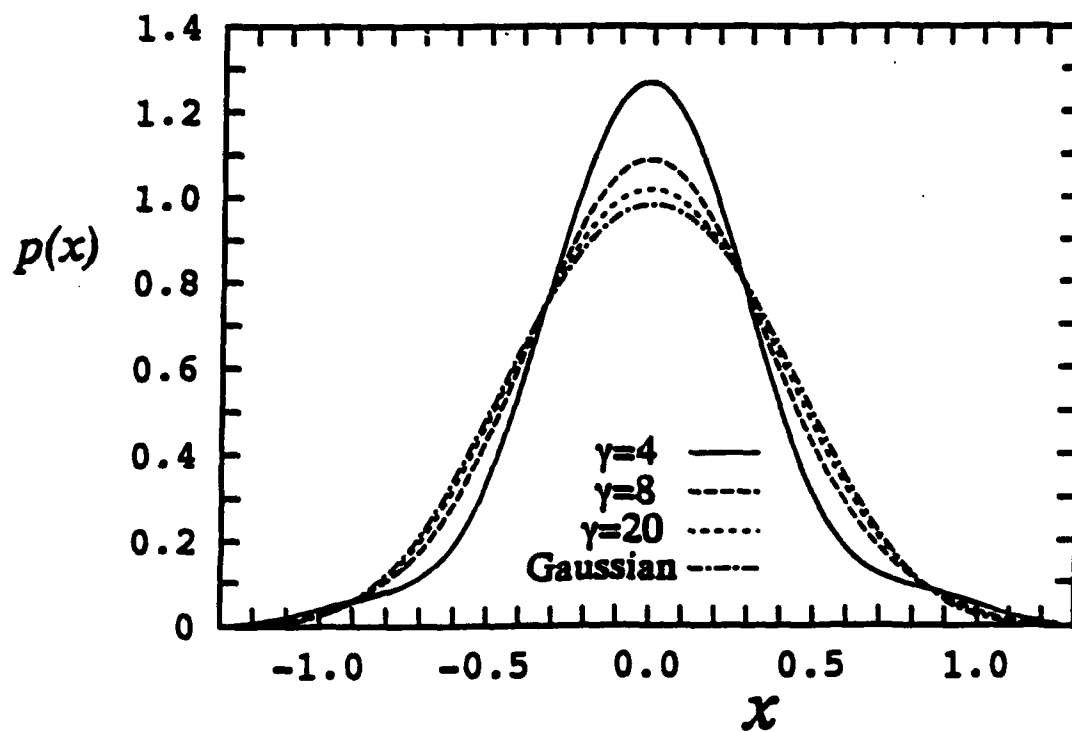
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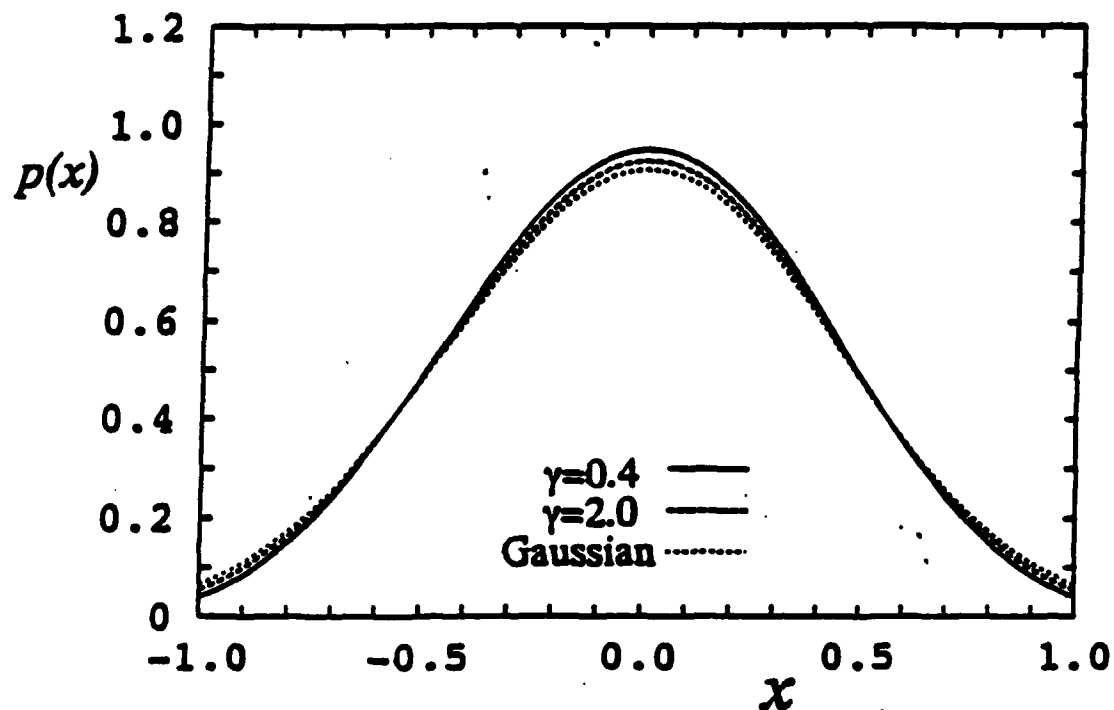
(a)  $\delta = 0.1$



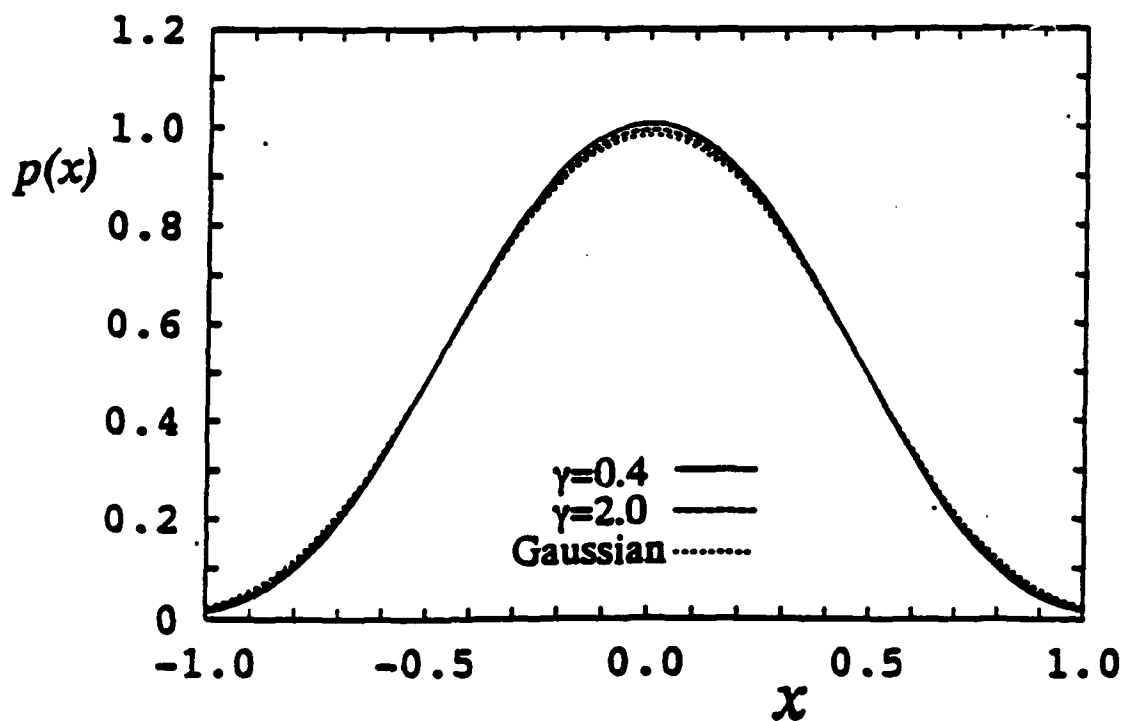
(b)  $\delta = 1.0$

Fig. 1 Stationary probability density of displacement  $X$  for a Duffing oscillator under external impulsive excitations. Excitation pulse amplitude non-symmetrically distributed.





(a)  $\delta = 0.1$



(b)  $\delta = 1.0$

Fig. 2 Stationary probability density of displacement  $X$  for a nonlinear system under parametric impulsive excitations. Excitation pulse amplitude non-symmetrically distributed.

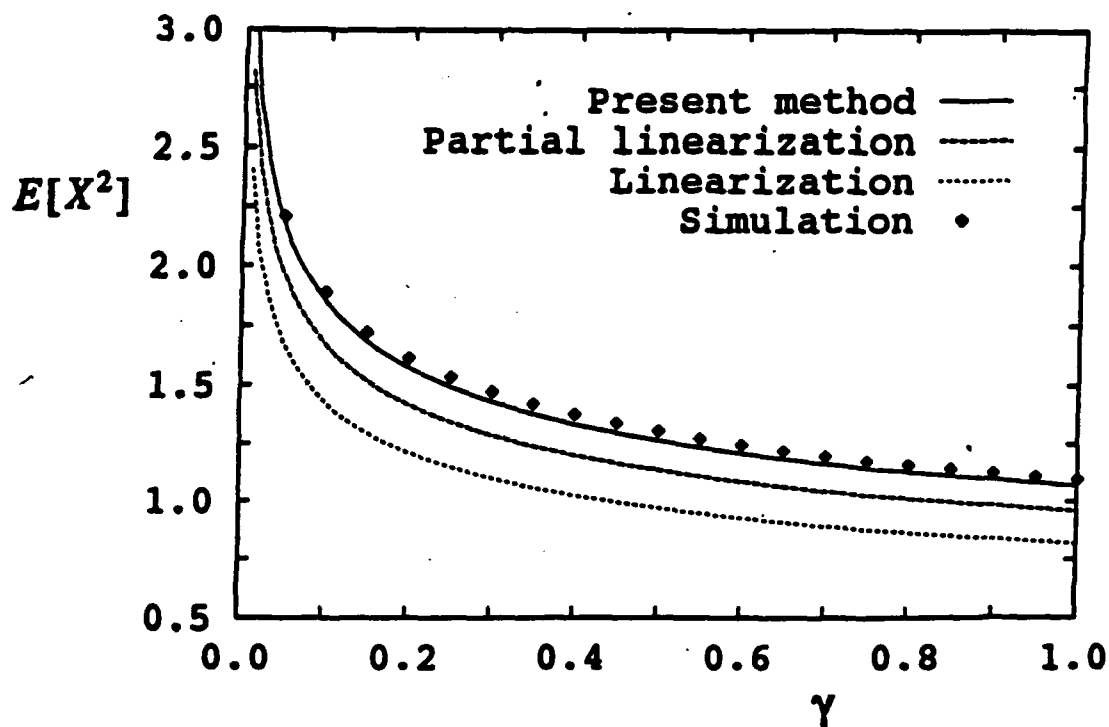


Fig. 3 Mean square displacement for system  $\ddot{X} + \beta\dot{X}^3 + \gamma\dot{X}^3 + \delta X^3 = W(t)$

$$\beta = 0.1, \delta = 0.5$$

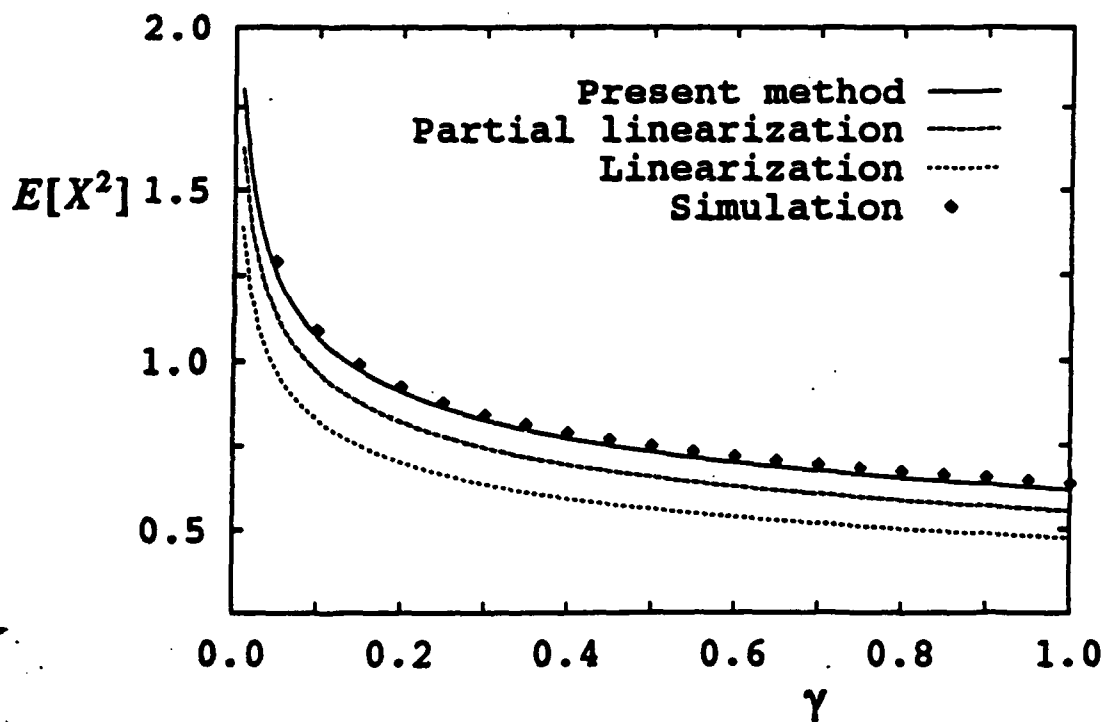


Fig. 4. Mean square displacement for system  $\ddot{X} + \beta\dot{X} + \gamma\dot{X}^3 + \delta X^3 = W(t)$

$$\beta = 0.01, \delta = 1.5$$

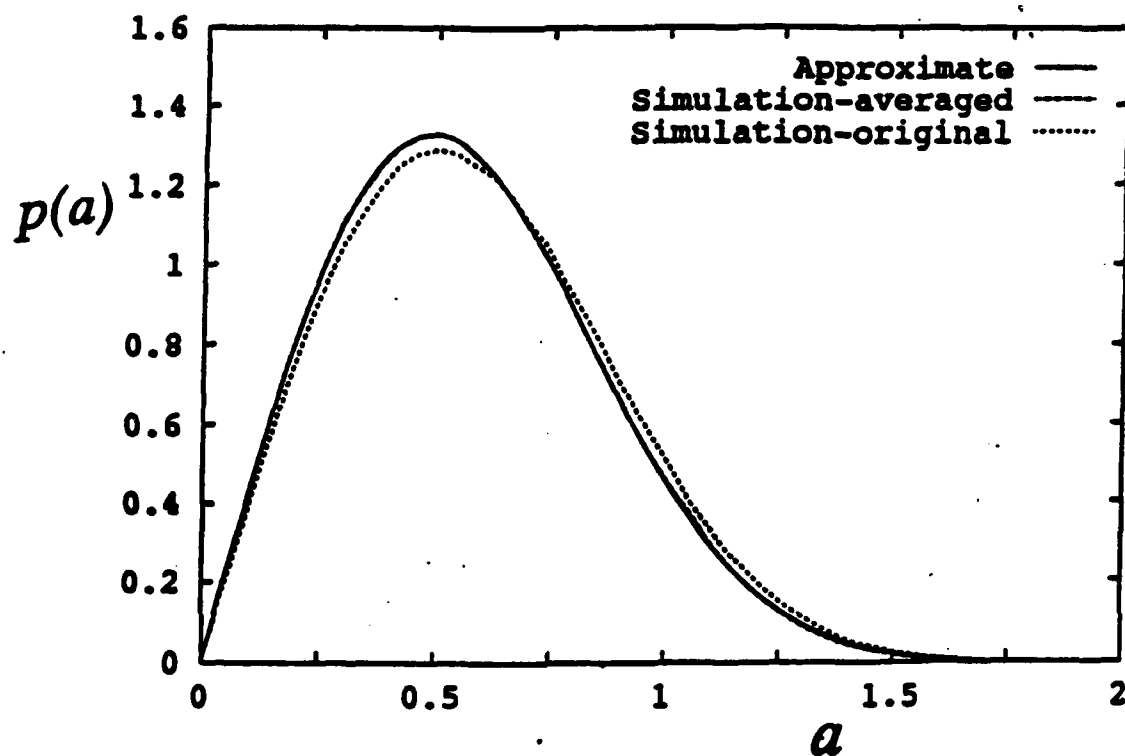


Fig. 5. Stationary probability density of amplitude  $A$  for nonlinear system

$$\ddot{X} + 2\zeta\omega_0\dot{X} + \beta X^2\dot{X} + \omega_0^2 X[1 + \lambda \sin(2\nu t)] = W(t),$$

$$\beta = 0.15, \zeta = 0.05, \omega_0 = 10, \nu = 11, \lambda = 0.1$$

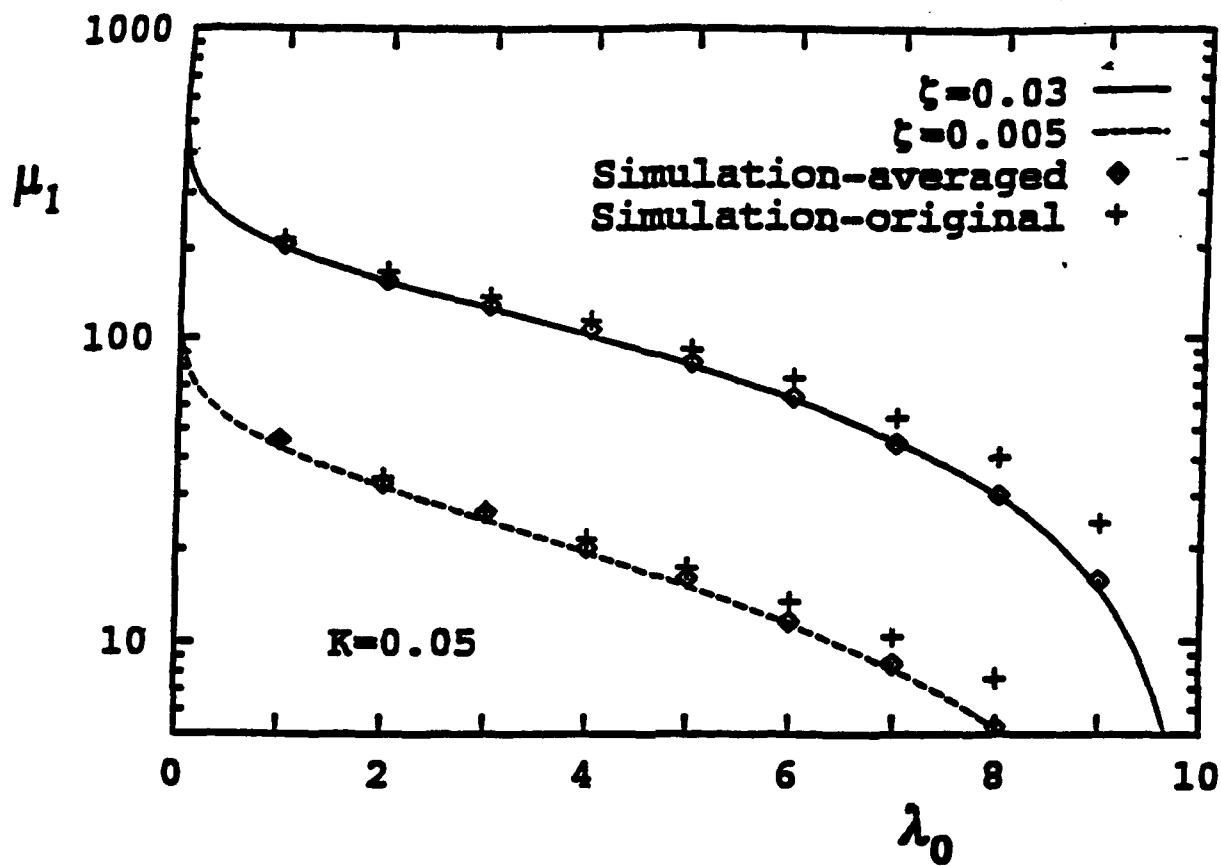


Fig. 6. The mean first-passage time of a Duffing oscillator under parametric white noise excitation. Damping coefficient  $\zeta = 0.03, 0.005$ , white noise spectral level  $K = 0.05$ .

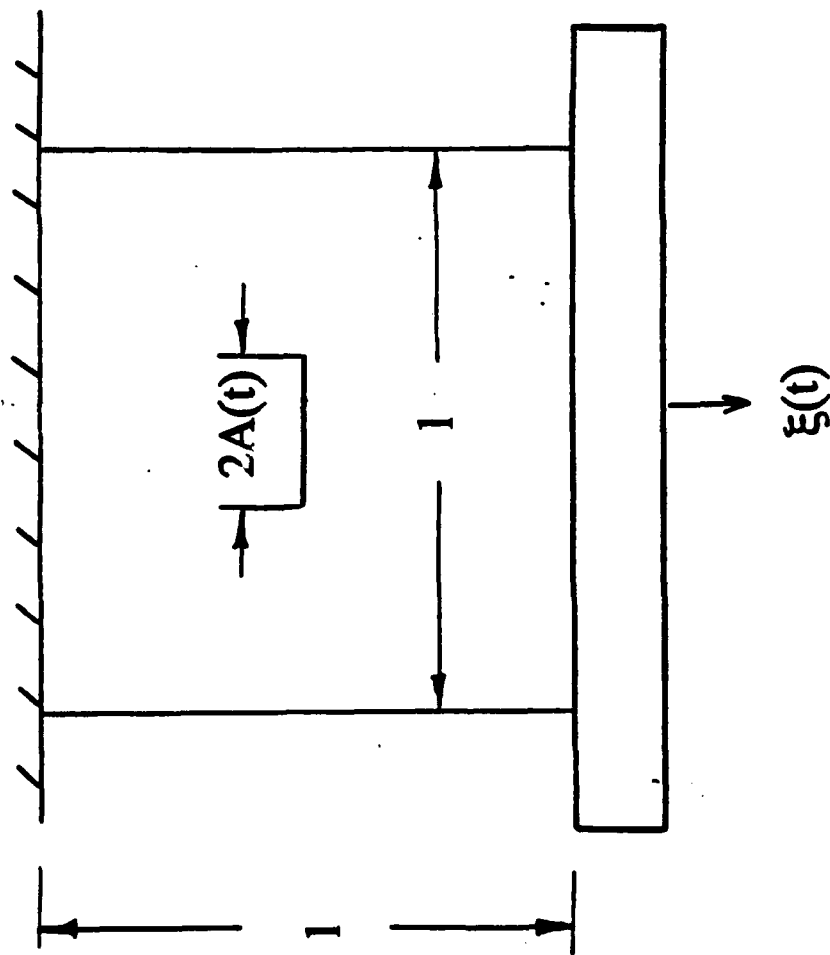


Fig. 7. A square plate with initial central crack of length  $2a_0$  subject to load process  $\xi(t)$ .

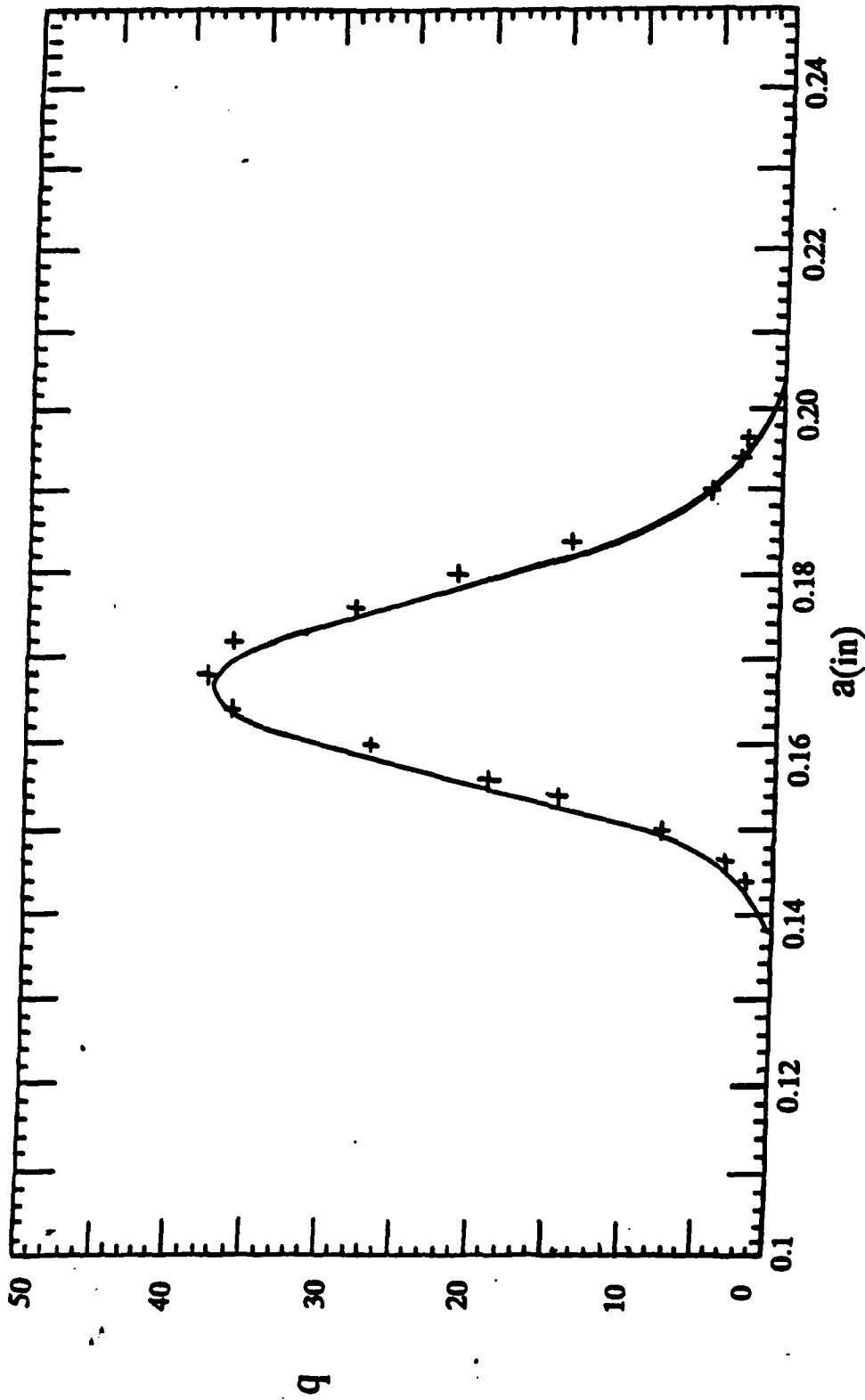


Fig. 8. Probability density of crack size at non-dimensional time  $T = 500$ , on the condition of initial crack size  $2a_0 = 0.01$  in (0.00254m). Load spectral level  $G = 0.001 \text{ lb}^2 \text{ s} (2.057 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N}^2 \text{ s})$ .